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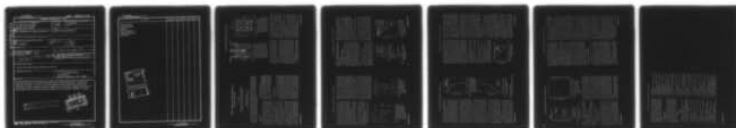
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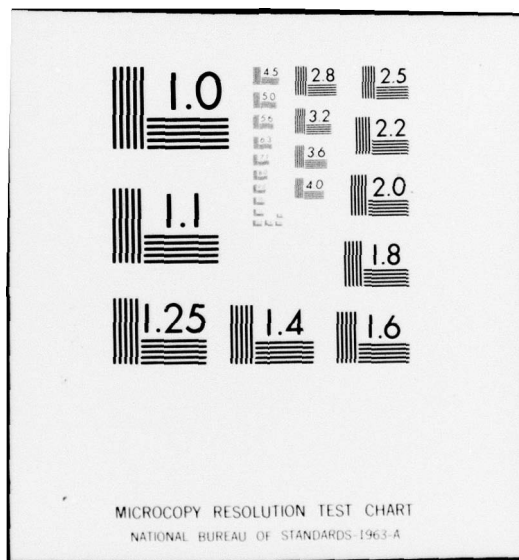
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13. ABSTRACT

The high temperature thermochemistry of inorganic materials naturally falls into three principal but related areas of research: Heat of Mixing Calorimetry, Solution Calorimetry, and Reaction Calorimetry of Solids. A brief survey will be presented of the development of modern high temperature reaction calorimetry, and of its application in these areas. Emphasis will be placed on the author's work on oxide melt solution calorimetry and on reaction calorimetry of solids.

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3. High Temperature Thermochemistry of Inorganic Materials

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The high temperature thermochemistry of inorganic materials naturally falls into three principal but related areas of research: Heat of Mixing Calorimetry, Solution Calorimetry, and Reaction Calorimetry of Solids. A brief survey will be presented of the development of modern high temperature reaction calorimetry, and of its application in these areas. Emphasis will be placed on the author's work on oxide melt solution calorimetry and on reaction calorimetry of solids.

1. Introduction

The applications of high temperature reaction calorimetry to problems of inorganic materials naturally fall into 3 categories: Heat of Mixing Calorimetry, Solution Calorimetry, and Reaction Calorimetry of Solids. Although these applications often can be carried out in the same type of calorimeter, to some extent they represent three different but related scientific traditions.

One of the very first examples of high temperature heat of mixing calorimetry was the extensive work of Kawakami,¹⁾ on liquid alloys carried out at Tohoku University nearly 50 years ago. Our own thermochemical studies of liquid metals²⁾ and of fused salts³⁾ represent direct extensions of the type of research initiated by Kawakami.

The first example of high temperature solution calorimetry is the work of Ticknor and Bever⁴⁾, who in 1952 pioneered the technique of tin solution calorimetry. This method has contributed greatly to the development of the thermochemistry of solid alloy systems during the past 25 years. Our own work on oxide melt solution calorimetry, developed in collaboration with Yokokawa in 1964⁵⁾, extended high temperature solution

methods to refractory oxide systems.

There have been a number of different applications of high temperature reaction calorimetry of solids. These applications may be considered to have started with the work of Kubaschewski and Walter⁶⁾, who in 1939 measured the enthalpy of formation of intermetallic compounds using a relatively crude adiabatic calorimeter operating at 700°C.

2. Calorimeter Design

Historically, two different principles of design have been adopted in high temperature reaction calorimetry. In one approach one has attempted to extend to high temperatures the adiabatic or nearly adiabatic designs which have proved so successful in room temperature and low temperature calorimetry.

Among many others the adiabatic reaction calorimeter of Dench⁷⁾(1963), the adiabatic heat of mixing calorimeter of Itagaki and Yazawa⁸⁾(1969), and the quasiadiabatic reaction calorimeter of Grönvold⁹⁾(1972) clearly belong to this tradition. The first high temperature calorimeter developed in our own laboratory in 1954²⁾ was a step in the same direction (Fig. 1). In this calorimeter, which was derived from the early adiabatic design of Kuba-

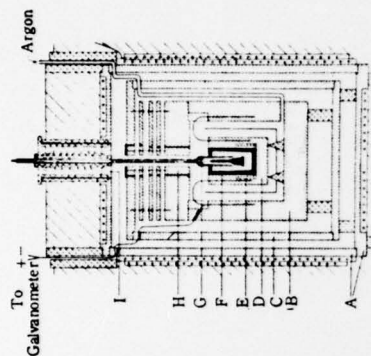


Fig. 1. Quasiadiabatic differential reaction calorimeter for temperatures below 500°C. A, furnace core with main heaters; B, constant temperature jacket (aluminum); C, heavy shield (steel); D, calorimeter block (aluminum); E, removable crucible (graphite); F, charging or stirring device (graphite); G, radiation shields; H, inner plug; I, outer plug.

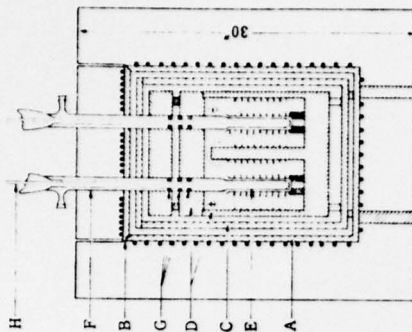


Fig. 2. Twin differential heat flux calorimeter for temperatures below 500°C. A, main heater; B, top heater; C, heavy shield (steel); D, aluminum jacket; E, calorimeter protection tube (stainless steel); F, radiation shields; G, manipulation tube; \odot - thermopile.

schewski and Walter, we did not aim at adiabatic operation, but tried, as far as was convenient, to reduce the heat leak. An important feature of this apparatus was that temperature was measured differentially between the calorimeter and the surrounding jacket.

This calorimeter proved quite successful in studies of the heats of mixing of liquid metals²⁾ and for tin solution calorimetry below 500°C¹⁰⁾. However, when we attempted to use this design at temperatures up to 700–800°C, we found that the heat leak became intolerably large. Thus, the quasiadiabatic design, which had proved very useful below 500°C, seemed to have little to offer above this temperature. We concluded that precision reaction calorimetry above 500–600°C would require a new and different approach.

This new and different approach was provided by the integrated heat flux design of Tian and

Calvet, the monograph of Calvet and Pratt¹¹⁾, which appeared in 1956, offered solutions to some of our problems. Calvet's work induced us to develop our first twin microcalorimeter for high temperature work, based on a modified Tian-Calvet design³⁾. The apparatus, which is shown in Fig. 2, was built in 1958–59 and is still in operation. However, the original chromel-alumel thermopile has been replaced by a Pt-Pt13Rh pile.

The following aspects of the Calvet type design are of particular significance:

(1) The temperature sensitive element consists of a multiple junction thermopile which measures the temperature difference between the external surface of the calorimeter proper and the internal surface of the surrounding jacket. By varying the number of thermocouples the sensitivity of the apparatus can be varied within very wide limits.

(2) By changing the diameter (and the mass) of the

calorimeter its time constant can be adjusted. We have found a diameter of about 25 mm to be convenient for many high temperature applications. (3) Since the Calvet type apparatus is an integrated heat flux device, it is not a high precision instrument. In this respect it is certainly inferior to the adiabatic design below 500°C. On the other hand, it is a very simple, convenient and reliable calorimeter, and we have achieved very nearly the same precision at 1000°C as near room temperature.

(4) The twin construction is particularly useful at high temperature since it, to some extent, eliminates the need for elaborate and costly temperature control.

(5) If very good temperature control is available, it is sometimes possible to dispense with the twin construction and to still obtain very satisfactory calorimeter performance. This is true, in particular, for short term experiments such as, for example, many heat of mixing experiments.

We show in Fig. 3 a schematic diagram of a

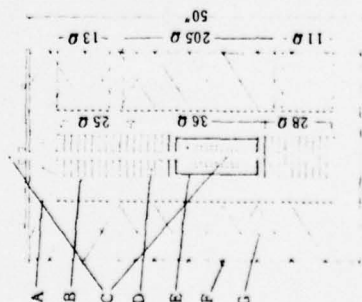


Fig. 3. Differential heat flux calorimeter for high temperatures (alumina):

A, main heater (Kanthal A); B, inside heater (Pt-40Rh); C, protection tube; D, alumina disks; E, calorimeter jacket (alumina); F, water cooling; G, insulation; ⊕ — ⊙, thermopile.

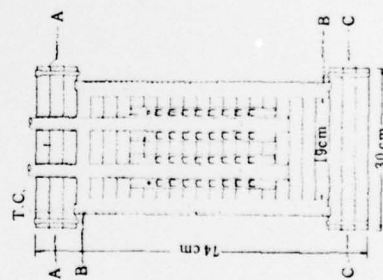


Fig. 4. Twin differential heat flux calorimeter for high temperatures (alumina): A, top heater; B, main heater; C, bottom heater; T.C., control thermocouple; ⊕ — ⊙, thermopile.

applications of oxide melt solution calorimetry, and also say something about high temperature reaction calorimetry of solids.

3. Oxide Melt Solution Calorimetry

We give in Fig. 5 a schematic diagram of the experimental arrangements which have proved useful in oxide melt solution calorimetry. In our early work with Yokokawa we explored the potential of liquid vanadium pentoxide (V_2O_5) as a calorimetric solvent near 700°C¹². The results of this early exploration are summarized in Fig. 6, which gives the enthalpy changes associated with the solution of simple oxides, MO, in V_2O_5 . Note in particular that for the oxides of the alkaline earth metals the enthalpies of solution change systematically in the sequence



with small positive values for BeO and quite large negative values for BaO. This is, of course, the order of increasing ionic radius of the cation and of increasing basicity of the solute oxide, which is consistent with the fact that the solvent V_2O_5 is a very strongly acidic oxide. These early results

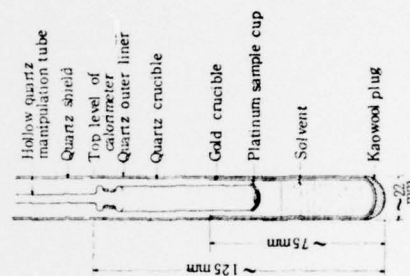
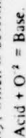


Fig. 5. Schematic diagram of calorimetric arrangements used in oxide melt solution calorimetry.

immediately suggest that an understanding of the elements of acid-base chemistry of melts is essential in any meaningful discussion of possible solvents for oxide melt solution calorimetry.

It is convenient to discuss the acid-base character of oxides and oxide melts in terms of the Lux-Flood^{13,14} approach, which is analogous to the well-known Brønsted-Lowry scheme for protonic acids. According to Lux and Flood a suitable measure of the basicity of the melt is the oxygen ion activity, which is determined by the equilibrium:



The stronger the base, the higher the oxygen ion activity.

For the vanadium (V)-oxygen system we may in this scheme write a series of possible (but not necessarily realized) consecutive acid-base steps, which involve species such as V^{+5} , VO_2^+ , VO_3^+ , V_2O_4 , VO_3 , V_2O_5 , and VO_4^{3-} . Similarly we may for each oxide MO consider the species M^{+2} , MO, MO_2^+ , etc. When a basic solute MO is added to liquid V_2O_5 , this will give rise to the formation of vanadate species such as VO_3 , V_2O_4 , and VO_3^+ (or

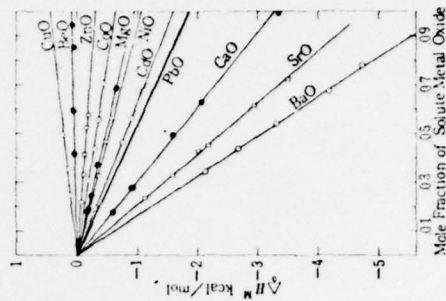


Fig. 6. Molar integral enthalpies of mixing of liquid V_2O_5 plus solid oxides at 700°C.

polymeric forms of these). To a first approximation the magnitude and sign of the enthalpy change associated with the solution process

$\text{MO}(s) + \text{V}_2\text{O}_5(l) = \text{M}^{2+} + \text{Vanadate} (in \text{V}_2\text{O}_5)$ may be considered a measure of the tendency of this acid-base reaction to proceed from left to right, i.e., of the relative strength of V_2O_5 and M^{2+} as acids or of MO and vanadate as bases. The stronger the base MO (or the weaker the corresponding acid M^{2+}) the more negative the partial enthalpy of solution (ΔH_{sol}).

If the solute oxide M_2O_n is very acidic, e.g., has an acidity which approaches that of the solvent V_2O_5 , the acid-base character of the dissolution process in large measure will be suppressed. Under these conditions the enthalpy of solution no longer will serve as a meaningful measure of the relative acid-base strengths of the solutes. For this purpose one should, of course, instead use an acidic solvent of basic character, such as e.g., liquid PbO .

The vanadate- V_2O_5 mixtures which result from the dissolution of basic oxides in V_2O_5 are examples of buffered acid-base melts. Since most mixed oxide compounds contain two or more components of different acidity, it usually will be most convenient to use buffered melts as calorimetric solvent. This also has the practical advantage that in the buffered regions the enthalpies of solution of acidic or basic oxides tend to vary less with composition.

In 1967 Holm and Kleppa¹⁵⁾ published the results of a calorimetric investigation of the $\text{PbO}-\text{B}_2\text{O}_3$ system carried out at 800°C. In this work the partial enthalpies of solution (actually $\Delta H/\Delta n$ of $\text{PbO}(s)$ and $\text{B}_2\text{O}_3(l)$) were measured at compositions between about 17 mole per cent and about 67 mole per cent B_2O_3 . At higher B_2O_3 contents the melts were too viscous to allow precise calorimetry by the direct mixing approach.

The results are shown in Figs. 7 and 8. Since the partial enthalpies of both components were measured, it was possible to check the internal consistency of the results by means of the Gibbs-Duhem equation. The results of this check are indicated as broken lines in the figures. On the whole there is reasonable agreement between the

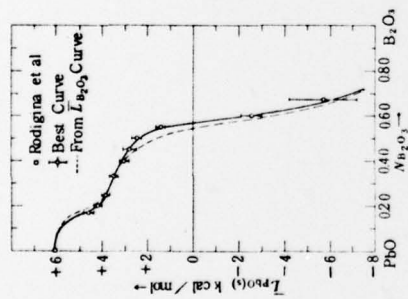


Fig. 7. $\Delta H/\Delta n$ for solid $\text{PbO}-\text{B}_2\text{O}_3$ melts at 800°C. Enthalpy of fusion of PbO from E. N. Rodigina, K. Z. Gorn'skii, and V. F. Lugmina, Russ. J. Phys. Chem. **35**, 884 (1961).

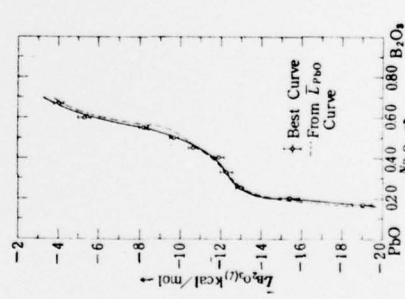


Fig. 8. $\Delta H/\Delta n$ for liquid B_2O_3 in $\text{PbO}-\text{B}_2\text{O}_3$ melts at 800°C.

The data suggest interesting changes in the calculated and measured data.

acidity of the melt as the composition varies from basic in the high PbO region to acidic in the high B_2O_3 range. We interpreted the results to indicate that the liquid lead borate system contains at least two complex borate anions, which have oxygen-boron ratios of about 3.5-4.0 and 1.84-1.91, respectively. These ratios were obtained by attempting to locate the two steeply rising parts of the partial enthalpy versus composition curve. Between these two compositions the curves are flatter, which presumably reflects the presence of both of the two borate anions in comparable amounts, i.e., a buffer region. Most of our early calorimetric work was based on the use of melts with a $\text{MO}:\text{B}_2\text{O}_3$ ratio of 3:1. However, as a result of the work by Holm and Kleppa we now prefer a somewhat more acid melt with a ratio of 2:1.

The principal applications of oxide melt solution calorimetry may be considered to fall into the following broad categories

- (1) Determination of enthalpies of formation of refractory mixed oxides (e.g., the spinel family^{16,17)};
- (2) Enthalpies of phase transformations (e.g., Al_2SiO_5 , 18.19 , TiO_2 , 20 , SiO_2 ²¹⁾;
- (3) Cation disorder in mixed oxides (e.g., spinels²²⁾, feldspar²³⁾, sillimanite²⁴⁾;
- (4) Mineralogical reaction and equilibria (e.g., jadeite²⁵⁾, cordierite-sapphirine²⁶⁾).

We show in Fig. 9 the results of our determination of the enthalpies of formation (from the pure oxides) for a series of 2-3 types aluminate, ferrite,

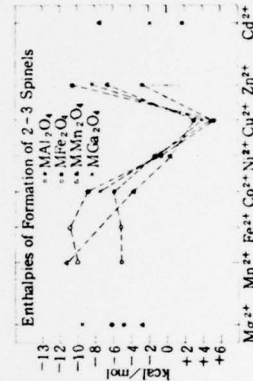


Fig. 9. Enthalpies of formation of 2-3 spinels from indicated oxides.

manganite, and gallate spinels involving the same divalent cations (Navrotsky and Kleppa¹⁶⁾). Note in particular the near zero enthalpies of formation of the nickel spinels, and the **positive** values for all the copper spinels. More recent work by Muller and Kleppa¹⁷⁾ shows that copper chromite similarly has a positive enthalpy of formation. The positive enthalpies indicate that these compounds must be stabilized at high temperature by a corresponding positive entropy term, which in large measure must arise from cation disorder.

This work on the spinels drew our attention to the general problems associated with the thermochemistry of cation disorder in mixed oxides at high temperatures. The ideal spinel structure consists of a cubic close packed array of anions, with one-eighth of the tetrahedral and one-half of the octahedral interstitial sites occupied by cations. Hence the cation to anion ratio will be 3:4. In a simple oxide spinel, AB_2O_4 , two extreme distributions of cations are possible: the "normal" distribution AB_2O_4 and the "inverse" distribution B(AB)O_4 ; in each case the ions in parenthesis occupy octahedral sites. Intermediate distributions also are known, which may conveniently be described in terms of an "inversion parameter" x

$$\text{AB}_2\text{O}_4 \rightleftharpoons x\text{A}(\text{B})\text{O}_4 + (1-x)\text{A}_2\text{B}_2\text{O}_4$$

For $x=0$, we have the "normal" spinel; for $x=1$, the "inverse" spinel; for $x=2/3$ the "random" spinel.

Navrotsky and Kleppa²²⁾ gave a general discussion of the thermodynamics of cation distributions in spinels. I reproduce from their work Fig. 10, which shows the dependence of the configurational entropy on the parameter, x . In view of this graph it will readily be understood why some spinels with significant positive enthalpies of formation may well be stable at elevated temperatures.

High temperature cation disorder is a general problem in mixed oxide phases at high temperature. Another important example is provided by the feldspar family, such as, for example, in the sodium feldspar, $\text{NaAlSi}_3\text{O}_8$ (albite).

In the albite structure the Al and Si atoms occupy 4 distinctly different crystallographic sites, each of which is surrounded by four oxygen atoms in tetrahedral coordination. If we designate these

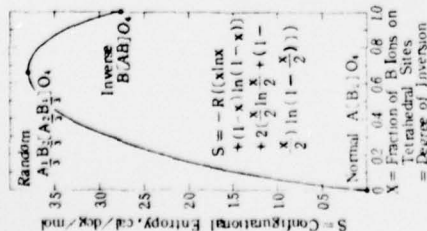


Fig. 10. Configurational entropy in disordered spinels as a function of degree of inversion, X .

sites by α , β , γ , δ , the preferred structural arrangement at low temperatures will be the ordered structure characteristic of "low albite."

(Al₂(Si₂)₂Si₂(Si₂))₂ with a zero configurational entropy.

However, at sufficiently high temperatures it is found that the Al and Si atoms will assume the random distribution

$$(\text{Al}_x\text{Si}_{1-x})_2(\text{Al}_y\text{Si}_{1-y})_2(\text{Al}_z\text{Si}_{1-z})_2$$

$$\text{with a configurational entropy of}$$

$$-4R(0.25 \ln 0.25 + 0.75 \ln 0.75)$$

$$= 4.5 \text{ cal K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}.$$

Using oxide melt solution calorimetry, Holm and Kleppa²³ determined the progress of the disordering process in low albite resulting from long term high temperature anneals at 1045°C. The results are shown in Fig. 11. Note that the overall enthalpy difference between the original "low albite" and the fully annealed "high albite" is about 3.4 kcal mol⁻¹ at 700°C. Note also that our results indicate that it is possible that the very sluggish disordering process in albite may be a two-step process.

During the past few years we have developed other applications of oxide melt solution calorimetry

often important thermodynamic differences between the pure, fully ordered samples assumed in most calculations, the rather impure samples provided by nature, and the sometimes disordered materials prepared and used in the high temperature-high pressure laboratory. We may make significant mistakes in our calculations unless these differences are recognized and taken into account.

In many cases we have been able to overcome these difficulties by coordinating high temperature-high pressure equilibrium work with oxide melt solution calorimetry. If calorimetric work is carried out directly on samples of minerals which are consumed or generated in the equilibrium work, the measured enthalpy changes relate to the substances which are actually under investigation. From a comparison between the Gibbs energies calculated from the equilibrium data, and the enthalpies obtained from calorimetry, it will also often be possible to obtain reliable entropy information valid at the temperatures of the equilibrium study. Such information may provide further insight with respect to cation disorder in the system being studied, and on the slope of the P/T curve of interest. This approach has provided a valuable new handle on some important mineral equilibria²⁷.

4. Reaction Calorimetry of Solids

Some of the principal applications of this technique have been:

(1) Direct Solid-Solid Reactions. This experimental approach was first applied by Kubaschewski and Walter in a study of the enthalpies of formation of intermetallic compounds such as Cu₃Pb⁶. An intimate mixture of the powders of the two metals in the form of a compacted pellet is dropped from room temperature into the calorimeter at 700°C. The heating of the sample initiates the solid-solid reaction, which rapidly proceeds to completion in the calorimeter. The same approach was adopted by Yokokawa and Kleppa²⁸ in a determination of the enthalpy of formation of Pb₃(VO₄)₂ from solid PbO and V₂O₅.

In both of these examples there was reason to be concerned about the uniformity of composition of the solid reaction product. Even so, this tech-

nique should have some real merit in thermochemical studies of fairly exothermic reactions between relatively low melting solids. On the other hand, it will not be suitable for the study of very refractory systems or of silicates.

(2) Phase Transformation Calorimetry. In some cases metastable solid phases (or phases) can be maintained at room temperature for indefinite periods of time while, by increasing the temperature, transformation to a more stable form can be achieved. These are favorable conditions for high temperature phase transformation calorimetry. We used this technique to determine the enthalpy of transformation of stishovite to silica glass²¹, and of a high pressure polymorph of TiO₂ to the stable rutile modification²⁹. The method has some things in common with scanning calorimetry, but should be capable of producing more precise thermodynamic information.

(3) High Temperature Combustion Calorimetry. At room temperature combustion calorimetry usually is carried out by means of the oxygen or fluorine bomb calorimeter. This technique remains one of the principal tools of thermochemistry, and may well be superior to all other methods of calorimetry when the combustion process gives rise to gaseous and water soluble oxidation products. However, the technique has obvious limitations when the oxidation products are solid substances which fail to reach the fully oxidized form during the calorimetric experiment. In such cases high temperature combustion calorimetry at atmospheric oxygen pressures may be a useful alternative. We have applied this method in thermochemical studies of nonstoichiometric oxides of tungsten³⁰, vanadium³¹, and titanium³².

(4) Partial Enthalpy Measurements. In 1963, Gerdanian, Maruccio, and Dole³³ first demonstrated the possibility of direct determinations at high temperatures of the partial enthalpies of oxygen in nonstoichiometric oxides. Since that time Gerdanian and coworkers have demonstrated the very considerable potential of this method in calorimetric studies of a number of metal-oxygen systems at temperatures up to about 1300°C.

Our own work in this area has been limited to

metal-hydrogen systems¹⁴⁾, and has been carried out at much lower temperatures than the work of Gerdanian et al. Even so, due to the relatively high experimental precision, our partial enthalpy measurements in metal-hydrogen systems are now contributing significantly to the understanding of the thermodynamics of these very important alloy systems.

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